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The Role of Athlete Narcissism in Moderating the Relationship Between Coaches' Transformational Leader Behaviors and Athlete Motivation

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Leadership research that examines follower characteristics as a potential moderator of leadership effectiveness is lacking. Within Bass's (1985) transformational leadership framework, we examined follower narcissism as a moderator of the coach behavior-coach effectiveness relationship. Youth athletes (male = 103, female = 106) from the Singapore Sports Academy (mean age = 14.28, *SD* = 1.40 years) completed the Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory (Callow, Smith, Hardy, Arthur, & Hardy, 2009), the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Terry, 1988), and indices of follower effort. Multilevel analyses revealed that athlete narcissism moderated the relationship between fostering acceptance of group goals and athlete effort and between high performance expectations and athlete effort. All the other transformational leader behaviors demonstrated main effects on follower effort, except for inspirational motivation.

Keywords: personality, youth, sport, leadership, narcissism, multilevel analyses

Coach behaviors have been identified as playing a critical role in shaping the experiences of athletes (e.g., Smith & Smoll, 1997; Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993). Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) has recently been incorporated into the sport coaching literature where it has been shown to be associated with outcomes such as motivation and performance (e.g., Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001; Rowold, 2006) and group cohesion (Callow, Smith, Hardy, Arthur, & Hardy, 2009). The effectiveness of transformational leadership in the sport domain mirrors that in other domains such as exercise (Beauchamp, Welch & Hulley, 2007), business (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), the military (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Hardy et al., 2010), education (e.g., Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995), and the public sector (e.g., Rafferty

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& Griffin, 2004). Transformational leadership theory is a behavioral approach to leadership that posits that transformational leaders will inspire followers via emotional appeals to achieve their full potential by transcending their own self-interest for the betterment of the team or organization (see Bass, 1985). Yukl (2006) described transformational leadership as “inspiring, developing, and empowering followers” (p. 287). Transformational leadership is often described in relation to transactional leadership: whereas transformational leadership focuses on creating an inspirational vision, providing support and challenge to followers, transactional leadership refers to leader behaviors that center around rewarding appropriate follower behavior (often referred to as *contingent reinforcement*) and punishment or corrective-orientated leader behaviors (often referred to as *active management by exception*); (cf. Bass, 1985). The current research will focus on transformational leadership.

While there is widespread agreement on the predictive qualities of transformational leadership, a number of criticisms have been leveled at the leadership and transformational leadership literature, especially in relation to the relatively unexplored domain of follower characteristics (e.g., Avolio, 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Klein & House, 1995). Indeed, Avolio (2007) stated that, “if the accumulated science of leadership had produced a periodic table of relevant elements . . . one might conclude that leadership studies had focused too narrowly on a limited set of elements, primarily highlighting the leader yet overlooking many other potentially relevant elements of leadership such as the follower and context” (p. 25). This sentiment has also been expressed by many scholars. For example, Lord, Brown, and Frieberg (1999) suggested that followers are a source of variance that has yet to be fully explored in the leadership literature. Grint (2000) even argued that, because it has failed to consider the impact of the follower, leadership research has been flawed from the start. Ehrhart and Klein (2001) further stated that, “[a] given leader may be satisfying and motivating to some employees, and dissatisfying and demotivating to other employees, even if the leader acts in an identical fashion toward both sets of employees” (p. 155).

Despite the above calls and criticisms from organizational psychology there has been some pioneering work conducted in the sport context that has given extensive consideration to the follower in models of leadership. For example, Chelladurai’s (1990, 2007) multidimensional model of leadership incorporates follower characteristics (e.g., age, gender, skill, level, personality), and Smoll and Smith’s (1989) meditational model of leadership also proposes that follower characteristics play a critical role in determining leadership effectiveness. Chelladurai’s model posits that follower characteristics are antecedents that impact three interacting factors of leader behavior: actual leader behavior, athlete preferred leader behavior, and the contextual appropriateness of leader behavior. Smoll and Smith’s meditational model posits that follower characteristics will function as a mediator between leader behaviors and follower outcomes, by impacting followers’ interpretations and evaluations of leader behaviors. In addition to this, Williams et al. (2003) stated that “coaching behaviors that effectively inform, motivate, or lead the self-confident, low-anxious, and highly compatible athlete may have the opposite effect on the low-confident, anxious, and less compatible athlete” (p. 31). However, while these sport models of leadership effectiveness do consider follower characteristics to play a crucial direct or moderating role (e.g., Williams et al., 2003) in determining the effectiveness of the leader, follower characteristics have not been explicitly tested as

moderating variables within the sport context. The question thus remains: To what extent do follower characteristics change the effects of different leader behaviors? Furthermore, the follower characteristics that have either been described or tested in the sport literature have tended to focus on skill level, maturation, nationality, gender, and sport type; personality variables have received far less attention (for exceptions, see Kenow & Williams, 1992; Williams et al., 2003). Consequently, the current research will identify a personality variable that can be theorized to moderate the impact of different leader behaviors and will then empirically test that hypothesis using moderation analysis.

One personality variable that has received no research attention in this follower context but that can be theorized to impact the effects of leader behaviors is narcissism. Narcissists exaggerate their talents and accomplishments and believe that they are special and unique (*Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* [DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 2000]. According to the DSM-IV narcissists possess grandiose feelings of self-importance, require excessive admiration, have a sense of entitlement, lack empathy, and are exploitative. Although narcissism was originally conceptualized as a clinical disorder, it was brought into the realms of normal psychology in the late 1970s, which has stimulated research from the personality psychology tradition that conceptualizes narcissism as an individual difference variable that can be measured in normal populations (see, for example, Campbell, Reeder, Sedikides, & Elliot, 2000; Judge, Lepine, & Rich, 2006; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissism has since occupied a prominent role in the leadership literature, although this research has focused solely on the leader's narcissism rather than narcissists' responses to different leader behaviors. In line with the narcissism literature, we conceptualized the varying degrees of narcissism (i.e., high and low narcissists) as those who score relatively high or low on the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Narcissists are known to lack empathy (Watson, Grisham, Trotter, & Biderman, 1984), are more concerned with self-enhancement (Campbell et al., 2000; John & Robins, 1994), exploit others in striving for self-enhancement (Campbell et al., 2000), and are not motivated by team goals (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002; Woodman, Roberts, Hardy, Callow, & Rogers, in press). Conversely, narcissists have a fragile yet overinflated sense of self and strive to protect this sense of self (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993; Rhodewalt & Eddings, 2002), seek admiration (Campbell, 1999; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), need others to maintain their inflated self views (Brunell et al., 2008), and will perform well in situations that offer opportunities for glory (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002; Woodman et al., in press). Given these characteristics of narcissism, it is proposed that different transformational leader behaviors have the potential to differentially impact followers depending on those followers' degree of narcissism.

Transformational leaders are proposed to motivate followers to transcend their own self-interest for the greater good, to adopt team goals, and to enhance followers' sense of value, self-worth, and confidence by providing individual attention and expressing belief in followers (e.g., Bass, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Consequently, it is likely that transformational leader behaviors that emphasize team goals or behaviors that limit opportunities for individual glory will motivate low narcissists to a greater extent than high narcissists. However, those transformational leader behaviors that can be theorized to enhance self-worth (e.g.,

providing individual consideration and expressions of belief in followers) will likely be equally as motivating for both narcissists and low narcissists.

The central focus of the current research is to theoretically explore and empirically test whether different transformational leader behaviors have global effects on followers (as is consistent with the majority of the theorizing in the transformational leadership literature) or whether the effectiveness of some transformational leader behaviors are moderated by followers' narcissism. To achieve this it would seem prudent to select an outcome variable that is central to the theoretical predictions of transformational leadership theory. One such outcome is leader-inspired extra effort. Central to the predictions of transformational leadership theory is that transformational leaders will inspire followers to invest extra effort (Bass, 1985). For example, Bass (1985) stated that "leadership can become an inspiration to extraordinary effort on the part of followers" (p. xiv), and again Bass (1998) stated that "transformational leadership styles build on the transactional base contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers" (p. 5). It is not surprising therefore that a large number of transformational leadership studies have examined the impact of transformational leadership on leader-inspired extra effort (e.g., Bass, 1985; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, Bass, & Shamir, 2002; Rowold, 2006; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). However, these studies have all conceptualized transformational leader behaviors as a unidimensional construct and thereby assumed that all transformational leadership behaviors have a similar impact on leader-inspired extra effort. Furthermore, beyond the theoretical rationale for the inclusion of leader-inspired extra effort to test the moderation hypothesis of this study, leader-inspired extra effort is a worthy outcome in its own right given its ability to delineate the motivational consequences that can be attributed to different leader behaviors. Consequently, the current study will test the moderation hypothesis on leader-inspired extra effort.

Based on the conceptual models of Bass and Avolio (2005) and Podsakoff et al. (1990), and Hardy et al. (2010) and Callow et al. (2009) conceptualized transformational leadership as consisting of six distinct behaviors: fostering acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, appropriate role modeling, and intellectual stimulation. The following section will briefly discuss and formulate specific hypotheses regarding each of these behaviors in relation to follower narcissism.

High performance expectations is a transformational leader behavior that demands the highest levels of performance and expects followers to exert maximal effort. This behavior is commonly suggested to make use of Pygmalion effects (e.g., Eden, 1990; Eden & Sulimani, 2002) by increasing followers' self-confidence. However, the results regarding high performance expectations have been rather more paradoxical. That is, studies have found positive relations between high performance expectations and outcomes (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1990), no relation between high performance expectations and outcomes (e.g., Hardy et al., 2010), and negative relations between high performance expectations and outcomes (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). These paradoxical findings could, at least partially, be explained by the presence of moderating variables. For example, one possible explanation for them is that high performance expectations may be viewed as a supportive leader behavior by low narcissists but as somewhat threatening for narcissists. This is because high narcissists are keen to be seen to be outperforming

expectations; leaders that have very high expectations may not provide them with such opportunities (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). As such, leaders who demand high levels of performance may normalize these high levels of performance, which in turn may reduce narcissists' opportunity to perform beyond expectations. Consequently, it is proposed that narcissism will moderate the impact that high performance expectations has on follower effort such that low narcissists will be more positively impacted than high narcissists by the leader's use of this behavior.

Fostering acceptance of group goals is a leader behavior that emphasizes the importance of team goals and encourages followers to adopt team goals. Woodman et al. (in press) revealed that high narcissists withhold effort in situations where group goals are being sought. Leaders who encourage their followers to adopt team goals are unlikely to motivate narcissists because narcissists' performance will not be directly attributable to them. Consequently, it is proposed that narcissism will moderate the effectiveness of fostering acceptance of group goals such that low narcissists will be more positively impacted than high narcissists by the leader's use of this behavior.

Leader behaviors that serve to corroborate a person's sense of self are theorized to have a positive effect regardless of followers' level of narcissism. *Inspirational motivation*, *individual consideration*, and *intellectual stimulation* will likely impact high narcissist and low narcissists in a similar way. For example, *inspirational motivation* contains expressions of belief and confidence in followers and it is proposed that these behaviors will be universally well-received regardless of narcissism. *Individual consideration* is a leader behavior that focuses on the individual and gives special attention to individual differences and needs. However, there is no reason why these facets of individual consideration should be differentially received by high and low narcissists. Consequently, it is proposed that individual consideration will have a positive effect regardless of followers' narcissism. *Intellectual stimulation* is a leader behavior that challenges followers to reexamine and rethink some of their assumptions. Essentially, intellectual stimulation is a leader behavior that provides followers with opportunities to solve problems on their own. We would argue that both high and low narcissists should respond positively to intellectual stimulation because this behavior will be interpreted by followers as the leader demonstrating faith in their ability to take responsibility and solve problems on their own. Similarly, leaders who are perceived to be an *appropriate role model* by their followers are likely to positively impact their followers regardless of these followers' narcissism. Consequently, it is hypothesized that *inspirational motivation*, *individual consideration*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *appropriate role modeling* will positively impact leader-inspired extra effort regardless of the degree of follower narcissism, and that the effects of high performance expectations and fostering acceptance of group goals will be moderated by follower narcissism.

Method

Participants

After nine participants were removed because of insufficient information to identify their coach, the sample consisted of 209 athletes (male = 103, female = 106) from the Singapore Sports Academy ($M_{\text{age}} = 14.28$, $SD = 1.40$ years, range 13–19 years).

Twenty-three coaches were rated by the athletes; each coach had between 3 and 19 athletes rating them ($M = 9.09$ responders per coach). The sample comprised mixed ethnic backgrounds: Chinese = 56.5%, Malay = 28.2%, Indian = 9.6%, Mixed = 5.3%, and Thai = 0.5%. The standards of sport represented were international = 17.2%, national = 54.1%, and regional = 28.7%. A total of 12 sports were represented in the current sample, including team sports (e.g., soccer and netball) and individual sports (e.g., athletics and golf). The average time athletes had been with their coach was 1.22 years ($SD = 0.93$).

Measures

Narcissism. Narcissism was measured using the 40-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The NPI has been shown to have adequate reliability and validity and is commonly used as a self-report measure of narcissism in normal populations (Raskin & Terry, 1988). It is a forced-choice scale that contains 40 pairs of statements. Each pair has a narcissistic response (e.g., “I have a natural talent for influencing people”) and a non-narcissistic response (e.g., “I am not good at influencing people”). A total narcissism score is derived by summing the individual’s number of narcissism responses, with a possible range of 0–40. The scale demonstrated acceptable internal validity with an alpha coefficient of .75, and an acceptable composite reliability of .70.

Transformational Leadership. The Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory (DTLI; Callow et al., 2009) was used to assess coaches’ leadership behaviors. The DTLI is a 27-item inventory that taps seven different leader behaviors, six of which are transformational in nature: Fostering acceptance of group goals (e.g., “My coach gets the team to work together for the same goal”); high performance expectations (e.g., “My coach always expects us to do our best”); inspirational motivation* (e.g., “My coach talks in a way that makes me believe I can succeed”); individual consideration* (e.g., “My coach recognizes that different athletes have different needs”); intellectual stimulation (e.g., “My coach challenges me to think about problems in new ways”); and appropriate role modeling (e.g., “My coach is a good role model for me to follow”); and one transactional behavior, contingent reward (e.g., “My coach gives me special recognition when I do very good work”). Each item is scored on a 5-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (*not at all*) and 5 (*all of the time*). We only used the six transformational leadership factors in the current study. Athletes were asked to fill out the questionnaire in relation to their coach.

Similar to Hardy et al. (2010) and Callow et al. (2009), the scale demonstrated a good fit to the data, $S-B \chi^2(215) = 374.34, p < .01$; RMSEA = .06; NNFI = .97; CFI = .98; SRMR = .07. All the standardized factors loadings were greater than .40 ($p < .01$) except for item 2 from the individual consideration scale (factor loading

*It is important to note that these behaviors are conceptual additions from the MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 2005), and as such contain a total of 3 items from the MLQ-5X, and 3 items that have been modified from the original MLQ-5X. All six items were reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, MIND GARDEN, Inc. www.mindgarden.com, from the “Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research” by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio. Copyright 1995 by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher’s written consent.

of .35, $p < .01$), and item 4 from the high performance expectation scale (factor loading of .27, $p < .01$). Despite the relatively low factor loadings of these items it was decided to retain these items for scale completeness. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the individual scales were all greater than .70, except for individual consideration ($\alpha = .64$) and high performance expectations ($\alpha = .68$). The composite reliabilities for all the separate scales were greater than .79. However, given the relatively low Cronbach alpha and factor loadings for individual consideration and high performance expectations interpretation of the results regarding these two behaviors may warrant caution.

Leader-Inspired Extra Effort. The Leader-Inspired Extra Effort scale used in the current study was based on Bass and Avolio's (2005) conceptualization within the MLQ-5X. Four new items were developed for the purpose of this study to reflect the sporting context of the study (e.g., "My coach motivates me to work hard."). A 5-point Likert scale was used (1—*strongly disagree* through to 5—*strongly agree*). CFA revealed that the scale had a good factor structure, S-B $\chi^2(2) = 1.79$, $p = .41$; RMSEA = .00; CFI = 1.00; NNFI = .99, SRMR = .01, with all standardized factor loadings greater than .76 ($p < .01$). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .89, and the composite reliability was .93.

Confirmatory factor analyses for the full measurement model consisting of all the leader behaviors and leader-inspired extra effort also revealed a good fit to the data, S-B $\chi^2(303) = 490.05$, $p < .01$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .97; NNFI = .97, SRMR = .07).

Procedure

Institutional ethical approval was obtained before the commencement of the study. Coaches were approached to explain the purpose of the study and to reassure them regarding the confidential nature of the results. After approval from the coaches, athletes were explained what was involved in taking part in the study and were reassured that they had the right to withdraw at any point. Informed consent (and parental consent, or coach consent acting *in loco parentis*, where appropriate) was then obtained. The administration of the questionnaires was counterbalanced and a break was provided between the administration of the DTLI and the NPI and the outcome variables.

Analyses

The current data consist of two hierarchical levels, the athlete (Level 1) and the coach (Level 2). Multilevel modeling allows researchers to examine Level 1 and Level 2 relationships among variables simultaneously and provides group level and individual-level error terms. To this end, we used MLwiN (V. 2.1; Rasbash, Charlton, Browne, Healy, & Cameron, 2009). To examine empirically whether it is appropriate to analyze the current data using a multilevel framework the variance components of leader-inspired extra effort were examined. This involves calculating the intraclass correlation coefficient, which defines the proportion of between group to total variance. The interclass correlation for leader-inspired extra effort was .111, which means that 11.1% of the total variance in the leader-inspired extra was accounted for by group membership. This is a meaningful amount of variance;

consequently, we adopted a multilevel framework to examine the hypotheses. Before conducting the analyses all variables were standardized (thus, the coefficients in the analysis should be interpreted as β coefficients) and the centering method used was group mean centering where the i th case is centered around its j cluster. In other words the individual scores were centered around their group mean. For a recent discussion on group mean and grand mean centering please refer to Enders and Tofighi (2007).

Kreft and Leeuw (1998) suggested that when conducting multilevel analyses one needs to test whether the Level 1 predictors should be fixed or set random at Level 2. In the former case, it is assumed that the effect of the predictor on the outcome variable does not vary across the Level 2 units (i.e., coaches in our case), whereas a random effect implies the opposite. We tested possible random effects of the predictors by examining the significance of their variance term at Level 2. If this variance term was not significant, the predictors were subsequently treated as fixed factors. Following the testing of whether the Level 2 variances should be randomized or fixed multilevel analyses were conducted in a sequential manner whereby each of the predictor variables were entered into the multilevel equation in turn. Table 2 (see p. 12) displays the results for the multilevel analyses. Model 1 in Table 2 displays the results for the moderator (narcissism), Model 2 in Table 2 displays the results for the moderator and the predictor variable (leader behavior), and Model 3 in Table 2 displays the results for the moderator, predictor variable and the interaction term predicting the dependent variable (leader-inspired extra effort). The nature and form of significant interactions were followed up by plotting the interactions at one standard deviation above and below the mean (Aiken and West, 1991). Analyses of simple slopes were carried out using the software developed by Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006).

Results

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and alpha coefficients for all study variables are displayed in Table 1. The mean NPI score of 13.37 is similar to means reported in the literature for Asian-Americans ($M = 13.87$, $SD = 6.85$; see Donnellan, Trzesniewski, & Robins, 2009). Gender differences have been reported for the NPI with males generally scoring higher than females (Tschanz, Morf, & Turner, 1998). Consistent with previous research a t test revealed that males ($M = 14.77$, $SD = 5.83$) scored significantly higher than females ($M = 12.01$, $SD = 5.79$) on the NPI, $t(207) = 3.43$, $p < .001$. Consequently, narcissism was standardized within sex for all analyses.

Hypothesis 1

High performance expectations will predict leader-inspired extra effort in low narcissists to a greater extent than high narcissists.

Initial scanning of the data revealed that the Level 2 variances associated with narcissism, $\sigma^2_u = .000$ ($SE = .00$), $p > .05$, and high performance expectations, $\sigma^2_u = .028$ ($SE = .043$), $p > .051$ were not significant. Consequently, narcissism and high performance expectations were treated as fixed factors. Model 3 in Table 2 reveals that after controlling for the main effects of narcissism, $\beta_1 = .201$ ($SE = .066$), $p < .05$, and high performance expectations, $\beta_2 = .277$ ($SE = .071$), $p < .01$, the interac-

Table 1 Individual Level Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations for All Variables, Alpha Coefficients Are Displayed on the Diagonal With Composite Reliabilities Displayed in Parentheses

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Age	14.28	1.28	—									
2 Time with Coach	1.22	0.93	.39**	—								
3 Fostering accept. of group goals	4.04	1.04	-.23**	-.20**	.88 (.93)							
4 High performance expectations	3.89	0.69	.01	.01	.24**	.68 (.90)						
5 Inspirational motivation	4.05	0.69	-.01	-.03	.44**	.37**	.77 (.86)					
6 Individual consideration	4.00	0.70	.07	.05	.37**	.27**	.69**	.64 (.79)				
7 Appropriate role model	3.94	0.74	-.23**	-.13	.51**	.32**	.71**	.53**	.77 (.87)			
8 Intellectual stimulation	3.88	0.65	.00	-.03	.44**	.23**	.67**	.63**	.64**	.76 (.84)		
9 Narcissism	13.37	5.96	.14*	-.01	-.32**	.02	.19**	.09	.11	.05	.75 (.70)	
10 Leader-inspired extra effort	4.18	0.73	-.19**	-.12	.43**	.30**	.71**	.63**	.76**	.65**	.17*	.89 (.93)

Note. $N = 209$, $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$. Time with coach is in years and the correlations with narcissism are standardized within sex.

Table 2 Multilevel Analyses for All the Study Hypotheses

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Hypothesis 1						
Intercept, B_{0ij}	0.014	0.087	0.015	0.087	0.013	0.087
Narcissism, B_1	0.172	0.070	0.175	0.068	0.201	0.066
High Performance Expectations, B_2			0.254	0.073	0.277	0.071
Interaction Term, B_3					-0.243	0.076
Individual-Level Variability	0.869	0.092	0.816	0.086	0.771	0.081
Group-Level Variability	0.088	0.059	0.094	0.059	0.101	0.081
Hypothesis 2						
Intercept, B_{0ij}	0.014	0.087	0.019	0.086	-0.035	0.083
Narcissism, B_1	0.172	0.070	0.379	0.060	0.307	0.061
Fostering Acceptance of Group Goals, B_2			0.703	0.069	0.825	0.073
Interaction Term, B_3					-0.206	0.052
Individual-Level Variability	0.869	0.092	0.551	0.059	0.515	0.055
Group-Level Variability	0.088	0.059	0.134	0.060	0.120	0.059
Hypothesis 3, 4, 5, and 6						
Intercept, B_{0ij}	0.018	0.083				
Individual Consideration, B_1	0.203	0.061				
Inspirational Motivation, B_2	0.132	0.074				
Appropriate Role Modeling, B_3	0.459	0.068				
Intellectual Stimulation, B_4	0.142	0.063				
Individual-Level Variability	0.309	0.033				
Group-Level Variability	0.170	0.058				

tion term was significant, $\beta_3 = -.243$ ($SE = .076$), $p < .01$. The group-level variance associated with this model was not significant, $\sigma^2_u = .101$ ($SE = .059$), $p > .05$, whereas the individual-level variance was significant, $\sigma^2_e = .771$ ($SE = .081$), $p < .01$). Using the Preacher et al. (2006) software to further explore the interaction revealed that the slope for low narcissism was significant and positive, $t(206) = 4.05$, $p < .01$, whereas the slope for high narcissism was not significant, $t(206) = 0.47$, $p > .05$. This interaction is depicted in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 2

Fostering acceptance of group goals will predict leader-inspired extra effort in low narcissists to a greater extent than high narcissists.

The Level 2 variances associated with fostering acceptance of group goals, $\sigma^2_u = .023$ ($SE = .026$), $p > .05$, and narcissism, $\sigma^2_u = .000$ ($SE = .000$), $p > .05$, were not significant. Consequently, narcissism and fostering acceptance of group goals were treated as fixed factors. Model 3 in Table 2 reveals that after controlling for the main effects of narcissism, $\beta_1 = .307$ ($SE = .061$), $p < .01$, and fostering acceptance of group goals, $\beta_2 = .825$ ($SE = .073$), $p < .01$, the interaction term was significant, $\beta_3 = -.206$ ($SE = .052$), $p < .05$. The group, $\sigma^2_u = .120$ ($SE = .059$), $p < .05$, and individual-level, $\sigma^2_e = .515$ ($SE = .055$), $p < .01$, variance associated with this model were both significant. Using the Preacher et al. (2006) software to further explore the interaction revealed that the slope for low narcissism was significant and positive, $t(206) = 4.50$, $p < .01$, whereas the slope for high narcissism was not significant, $t(206) = 1.43$, $p > .05$. This interaction is depicted in Figure 1.

Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, and 6

For each of the four predictor variables, their Level 2 variance was not significant. Consequently, these predictors were treated as fixed variables. Partially confirming Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, and 6, *individual consideration*, $\beta_1 = .203$ ($SE = .061$), $p < .01$, *appropriate role modeling*, $\beta_3 = .459$ ($SE = .068$), $p < .01$, and *intellectual stimulation*, $\beta_4 = .142$ ($SE = .063$), $p < .05$, significantly predicted leader-inspired extra effort. However, *inspirational motivation* did not significantly predict leader-inspired extra effort, $\beta_2 = .132$ ($SE = .074$), $p > .05$. The group, $\sigma^2_u = .170$ ($SE = .058$), $p < .05$, and individual-level, $\sigma^2_e = .309$ ($SE = .033$), $p < .01$, variance associated with this model were both significant.

Discussion

The current study examined whether transformational leader behaviors predicted leader-inspired extra effort, and whether the relationship between some of the transformational leader behaviors and effort was moderated by follower narcissism. The results demonstrated that transformational leadership was positively associated with leader-inspired extra effort in a sport context. Furthermore, in line with current theorizing, the effectiveness of *fostering acceptance of group goals* and *high performance expectations* was moderated by follower narcissism. In essence the results revealed that transformational leader behaviors that are less likely to

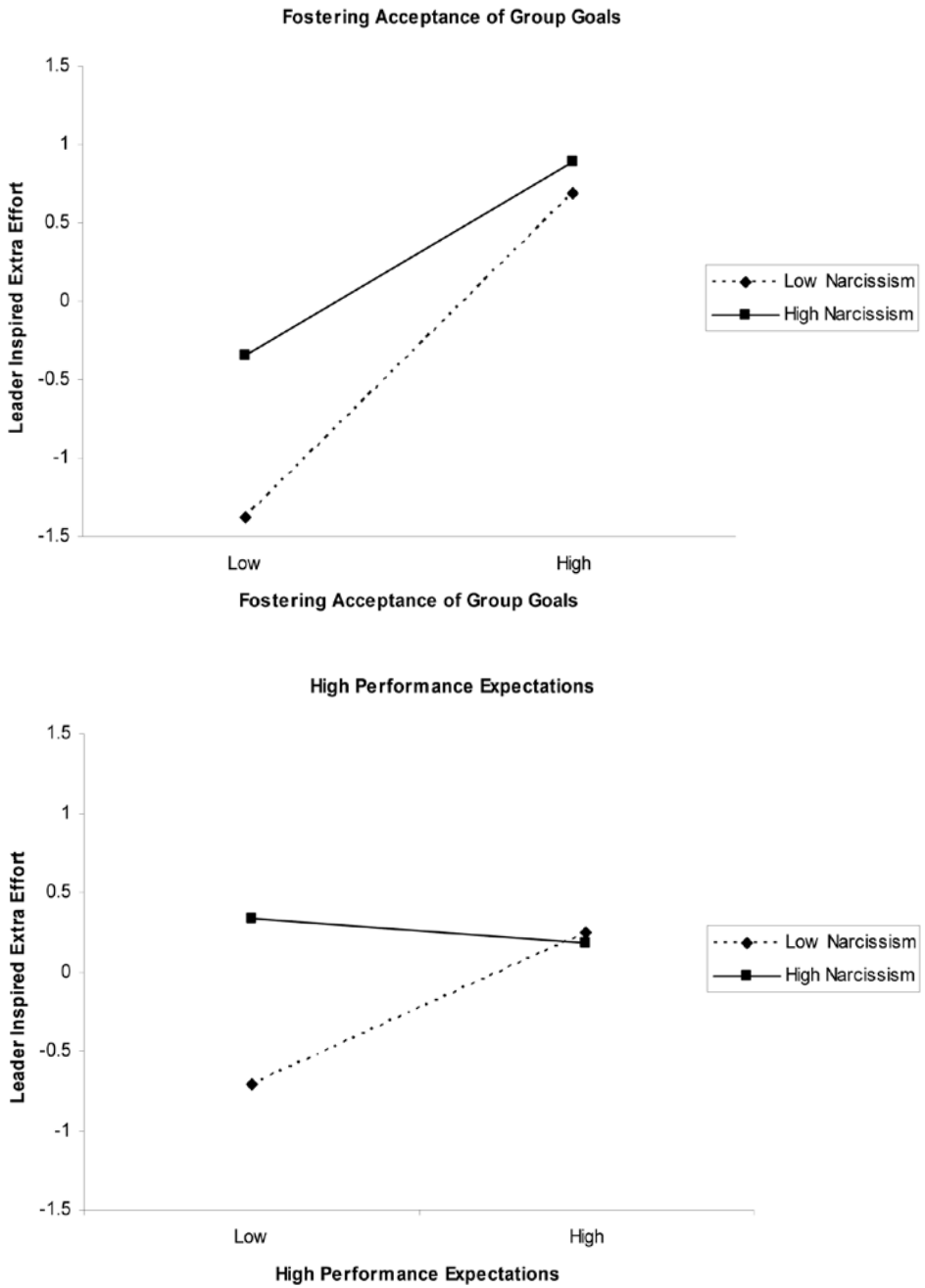


Figure 1 — Interactions between high performance expectations and narcissism, and fostering acceptance of group goals and narcissism, on leader-inspired extra effort.

provide opportunities for individual self-enhancement and glorification have less impact on narcissists than those who are relatively low in narcissism.

The current research adds to the growing body of evidence that suggests that follower characteristics may be a contextual variable that influences leader effectiveness (see for example, De Cremer, 2002; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), and supports the calls from researchers such as Avolio (2007), Grint (2000), and Lord et al. (1999) that follower characteristics need to be addressed when studying leadership effectiveness. The results suggest that leader behaviors which emphasize the importance of team work and group goals may not be as effective for narcissists as they are for low narcissists. Similarly, leader behaviors that express high performance expectations appear less effective for high narcissists than low narcissists.

The hypothesis that narcissism would moderate the effectiveness of high performance expectations, such that low narcissists would be more positively impacted than high narcissists was supported. The theoretical rationale presented for this hypothesis was that narcissists may perceive high expectations as a potential threat to their opportunity for self-enhancement. This is because narcissists desire to be seen to be outperforming expectations and this perception of superiority is thought to be a key component in maintaining an otherwise fragile self-esteem (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Leaders that have very high expectations may not provide narcissists with such opportunities because such high expectations may serve to normalize high levels of performance. Although this theoretical rationale sits fairly comfortably with the narcissism literature, it runs somewhat counter to the transformational leadership literature, which commonly attributes the effects of high performance expectations to Pygmalion effects (e.g., Bass, 1985; Eden, 1990; Eden & Sulimani, 2002). Bass (1985) suggested that followers' self-esteem and enthusiasm are raised as a consequence of high performance expectations which will result in followers increasing their efforts to fulfill their leader's expectations. However, in the context of high performance expectations in the current study, any such Pygmalion effects could only be attributed to those who are relatively low in narcissism. This being said, it is important to note that the current study did not specifically address the underlying mechanisms by which high performance expectations affect effort. Rather, the current study took the first step in testing whether narcissism moderated the impact of high performance expectations. Consequently, it would seem prudent for future research to consider the underlying mechanisms by which high performance expectations operates, and indeed whether these mechanisms are different for varying levels of narcissism.

The hypothesis regarding fostering acceptance of group goals was also supported, in that narcissism moderated the impact of fostering acceptance of group goals on effort, such that low narcissists were more positively affected by this behavior than high narcissists. This result is consistent with recent research that has demonstrated that narcissists will withhold effort when group goals are being sought (e.g., Woodman et al., *in press*). The results of the current study and Woodman et al. suggest that coaches' use of fostering acceptance of group goals would not be as beneficial to narcissistic athletes.

One of the major strengths of the current research is that it was underpinned by a theoretical model of leadership that is widely used in the literature, and may start to offer a partial explanation for some of the seemingly paradoxical leadership data (see for example, Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1996; and Hardy et

al., 2010). Conversely, the research is not without its limitations. For example, one could argue that the focus of the current research was somewhat narrow given its sole focus on transformational leadership theory. A further limitation of the current research is its cross-sectional design; future research should seek to replicate these results using experimental designs that allow for stronger inferences regarding causation. Furthermore, the current study examined self-report effort and future studies could endeavor to include more objective indices of effort. Future research should seek to further clarify the moderating role of follower narcissism in the coach behavior—coach effectiveness relationship, and investigate the underlying explanatory processes. While the DTLI demonstrated some encouraging psychometric properties the Cronbach alpha coefficients for high performance expectations and individual consideration were somewhat low along with some lower than desirable item factor loadings. Consequently, the interpretation of the results that involves high performance expectations and individual consideration may warrant some caution. Future research may also consider refining the DTLI.

While there is no universally agreed N for the group-level sample in multilevel analyses a commonly reported N is suggested to be 30 (e.g., Hox, 2010). The current sample had a group-level N of 23 and may thus be underpowered at the group level. The consequence of being underpowered at the group level is that the group-level analyses may not be able to detect group-level effects (i.e., is vulnerable to Type II errors at the group level). In terms of the current research this means that in the data screening stage of our analyses (i.e., testing whether the Level 2 variances should be fixed or randomized) that the nonsignificant group-level variances that were found may have been influenced by the size of the Level 2 sample. Consequently, a limitation of the current study is that the group-level analyses may have been underpowered.

The youthful nature of the current sample may have impacted the results in a number of ways. Young athletes may look up to their coaches and hold them in special regard and as a result be more prone to be influenced by them. In essence, the distance between the leader and followers in the current study would likely be greater than that in an older or elite sport sample. This discrepancy, in conjunction with narcissists' desire to be associated with high status individuals (Campbell, 1999), may have enabled the leaders in the current sample to have a greater impact on narcissists. More research is thus needed to establish if these results generalize to other contexts, and the role of leader distance and leader status in the moderating effects of narcissism. Finally, the current study warrants replication with other samples due to potential cultural differences between Asian and other populations.

In summary, the current research supports the calls to consider follower characteristics when examining the impact that the leader has on athlete effort. Although evidence was presented that coaches' transformational leader behaviors predicted follower effort, the magnitude of the prediction for some of these behaviors was dependent upon followers' level of narcissism.

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